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ABSTRACT

This document is a chapter in "The Principles and Practice of Educational Management," which aims to provide a systematic and analytical introduction to the study of educational management. The structure of the book reflects the main substantive areas of educational leadership and management, and most of the major themes are covered in the volume's 19 chapters, of which this is one. This chapter claims that schools and colleges can evaluate the learning needs of individual students, which can then inform individual tutorial practice and class teaching styles. Such evaluation can determine the differential effectiveness of departments, tutors, gender groups, and ethnic groups; can chart the progress and future direction of a curriculum department; can measure whole-institution effectiveness; and can determine the developmental needs of staff, including their capacity to work in synthesis to promote the learning goals of the organization. The focus of any evaluation should depend upon the values and aspirations of the institution; such a focus allows the process to be undertaken with a sense of purpose. The evaluation may identify issues that need to be addressed, and the monitoring process can pinpoint where remedial or developmental action can take place. Over a period of time, performance will be judged both externally and internally, formally and informally, in formative ways that enable future directions to be determined. In learning-centered organizations, learning is not confined to the student; staff members also learn about their subject, their support or management function, about student learning, and about leadership and strategic direction. In short, the whole organization collectively and continuously learns how to become more effective as an institution. (Contains 40 references.) (RJM)

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Monitoring and Evaluating Learning.

Ann R. J. Briggs

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Monitoring and Evaluating Learning

Ann R. J. Briggs

Introduction

The primary purpose of a college or a school is to enable learning. Whether what is learned is prescribed by the state or the institution, or negotiated with individuals or with groups of learners, a learning process is designed to take place, which may be social, cultural, vocational or intellectual in its nature, but which in some way serves the individual and collective needs of society. Colleges and schools are accountable for the nature and quality of the learning which takes place within them, and learning may be formally and informally evaluated within that framework of accountability. Based on Scott's (1989) analysis, the college or school's accountability can be:

- political: in a system which is supported by public funds, the institution is accountable for the best use of those funds
- market: it is accountable to its customers, partners and stakeholders
- professional: colleges and schools are accountable for maintaining the highest possible standards of teaching and training; this includes an accountability to fellow professionals
- cultural: education can be seen as fostering new insights, knowledge and understanding; it can be a force for change in society.

However, as Le Metais points out:

> In terms of measuring outcomes, whilst the achievement of some aims, such as functional literacy, may be assessed at specific points during compulsory education, success in others, such as achieving individual potential, developing positive attitudes to lifelong learning and flexibility to deal with change, may not emerge until much later and the specific contribution of formal education, as distinct from other influences, may not be identifiable at all. (Le Metais, 1999: 96)

Given the framework of accountability within which colleges and schools are placed, some of their political, market, professional and cultural relationships will include systems of monitoring and evaluating learning. As colleges and

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schools strive for better outcomes for their learners, they will need ways of evaluating for themselves how good those outcomes are, and how they are to be maintained and improved. However, the nature of learning itself, especially its subjective nature and often long-term qualitative outcomes, will mean that it often evades the necessarily blunt instrument which seeks to define and measure it.

How do we learn?

> We must move towards creating an appropriate learning environment; concentrate on understanding better how people learn so that they can be better helped to learn . . . redesigning the very process of learning, assessment and organisation so as to fit the objectives and learning styles of the students. (Tomlinson, 1996: 4)

Advances in understanding the processes of the mind and the impact of social and cultural factors upon learning have led to an increasing interest over the past two decades in assessing the conditions under which learning is taking place. Recent research and discourse about how people learn are starting to influence models of teaching, and may also influence ways in which teaching and learning are evaluated.

One of the most influential researchers in this field is Gardner (1983), in his work on multiple intelligences. He defines eight 'intelligences', possessed by each person in different proportions, and argues that in order to enable learners best to use their blend of intelligences, attention should be paid to five entry points which lead to understanding:

- the narrational or storytelling approach
- the logical-quantitative approach
- the foundational or philosophical approach
- the aesthetic approach
- the experiential approach.

This analysis would influence those evaluating learning processes to look for a range of settings to be available to the learner. These might include whole-class teaching using a narrational approach, learning environments rich in aesthetic stimuli supporting an aesthetic approach or a 'hands-on' learning experience providing an experiential approach.

Other analyses of the learning process similarly point to the proposition that groups of learners need to experience a range of stimuli and strategies for learning. For example, the sensory analysis of learning styles, following work by Reinert (1976), is based on the theory that information is processed through visual, auditory and kinaesthetic channels. Individuals are considered

to have predominant channels for processing information, which lead to individual strategies for learning which are based on their visual, auditory or kinaesthetic preferences. Research by Wood and Bennett (1999) and Katz (1999) into the needs of children in the early years of education indicates that they benefit from a highly interactive, varied learning environment, with the chance to express themselves through painting, drawing and building things as well as verbally and through writing. As learners mature, they can assess their own preferred sensory learning style, or blend of styles, by means of self-assessment questionnaires, and identify strategies for learning which are appropriate to their dominant style. If their tutor also has access to the analysis, both teaching and learning styles can be adapted to suit the predominant needs of the group, and to have regard for the needs of individuals.

Dimmock (2000) points out cross-cultural differences in approaches to learning, observing that approaches which are predominant in one culture may be undervalued in another. An interesting example here is the place of rote learning. Dimmock, drawing also on the work of Watkins and Biggs (1996) and Marton et al. (1996), notes that Chinese and Asian students have a tendency to rote learn, with repetition and memorisation being used as strategies to deepen understanding. On the other hand, Western educationalists regard rote learning as superficial, and as unlikely to contribute to deep learning. Cultural norms and preferences may thus affect the efficiency with which an individual can learn through a particular strategy.

A further perspective on learning has been provided through research by Goleman (1996) into emotional intelligence. This was based on work by Salovey and Mayer (1990), who identify five major domains of emotional intelligence:

- knowing one's emotions
- managing emotions
- motivating oneself
- recognising emotions in others
- handling relationships.

These domains are balanced differently in different people, and an individual's personal strengths and strategies, and their interactions with others, will be governed by that balance. Goleman (1996) considers that emotional intelligence is a crucial factor in determining a person's life chances, and that it can be fostered and developed. Emotional 'illiteracy', according to Goleman, is costly to the individual and to society, and is preventable. Whilst the main development of emotional competence takes place within the family, colleges and schools have also a role to play here: 'Developing emotional literacy is obviously a crucial part of preparing young people to survive and succeed in adult life, and Goleman's work provides powerful evidence that schools can

play an important part, though not an exclusive one, in supporting it' (Bentley, 1998: 26).

The perspectives on learning offered above are only a small sample from a body of research which has profound implications for the management and evaluation of learning.

> If schools confront the all-important question – how do students best learn? – they may have to modify other elements as well, in order to promote learning. These include organisational structures, such as the timetable and student and teacher grouping, as well as school culture and patterns of resource allocation. (Dimmock, 2000: 109)

They may also include a reassessment of how learning, and the progress of individual learners, is to be monitored and evaluated.

The learning-centred organisation

Where colleges and schools are learning-centred, learning is not confined to the student and pupil. Where staff, whatever their role, also learn – about their subject, their support or management function, about student learning, about leadership and strategic direction – and in a symbiotic and organised fashion, the whole organisation collectively and continuously learns how to become more effective as an institution, then the college or school can be deemed to be learning-centred. (See, for example, Lumby, 1997; Stoll and Fink, 1996; Lundy and Cowling, 1996) Evaluation of the learning capability of an organisation would be an enlightening, but daunting, task and not one to be attempted in any detail here. Some measure could be taken by using one of the many checklists of school effectiveness (see, for example, Sammons et al., 1996). However, a brief glance at the first three of Sammons's 11 most salient factors associated with effectiveness – professional leadership; shared vision and goals; a learning environment – shows that each of the features listed would need a detailed further analysis of how the organisation was 'learning its way forward' in that particular case. A simpler answer might be that the true 'learning organisation' would learn how to evaluate itself.

Morgan (1986: 89) notes that 'many organisations have become proficient at single loop learning, developing an ability to scan the environment, to set objectives, and to monitor the general performance of the system in relation to its objectives . . . However, the ability to achieve proficiency at double loop learning has often proved more elusive'. Double-loop learning involves reviewing and challenging norms, policies and procedures in relation to the changing environment of the organisation – in other words, it regularly questions the objectives themselves. Even within the variously bounded systems of autonomy experienced by educational organisations across the world, there may be scope to challenge the 'norms, policies and procedures' of the college or school –

through the individual and collective learning of its staff – so that the organisation can learn how to respond most appropriately to its changing environment.

Moving from organisational learning to its ultimate objective – student learning – analysing the process of evaluation may seem easier. Most colleges and schools have systems of monitoring the learning which takes place, both for the purposes of internal assessment and improvement and for external evaluation. However, if the debate also moves from the 'learning-centred organisation' to the 'learner-centred organisation', other issues intervene.

To be learner-centred assumes a knowledge of what learners need. Fazey observes: 'Being learner-centred . . . means acknowledging that each learner has individual needs and aspirations – that their reasons for study are as different as their personal resources, affective responses, knowledge of the environment and experiences' (Fazey, 1996: 31). Does the evaluation of learning involve taking into account the wishes and aspirations of the learner? Lumby (2001: 5) is pessimistic about the extent to which learners are consulted: 'The predominance of a discourse on learn*ing* rather than the learn*er* reflects the relative powerlessness of learners in discussions about learning and teaching.' In her view, students are rarely consulted about their satisfaction with the learning process and environment until they reach post-compulsory education, where they are more likely to be regarded as 'clients' whose custom can be won and lost. Ruddock et al. (1996), in a survey of UK secondary school pupils, underline the importance of asking individual students about their needs. Research at Mount Edgecumbe High School in Sitka, Alaska (Cotton, 1994), emphasises the success of involving the students in curriculum developments. Being learner-centred, and having the capacity to monitor and evaluate the organisation's effectiveness in supporting students' learning needs, can involve regular consultation of the students and pupils themselves, whatever their age may be.

However, the needs of the individual learner may not always be the main focus of the education system. In Denmark, 'Jante's Law', which celebrates collective, rather than individual, achievement is well respected in education. 'If a pupil is more capable at doing maths than another it is her responsibility to help other pupils to reach the same level' (White, 1997: 41). White presents the memorable analogy of tulips in a bulb field – where for one individual to stand up above the others is a feature 'not universally admired' (ibid.: 41). Similarly, in post-Pinochet Chile, educational reforms have focused upon 'the basic cultural skills necessary for the child's personal, social and intellectual development', and the 'equitable distribution of those learning outcomes within the population' (Aedo-Richmond and Richmond, 1999: 198).

Cultural differences in approaches to learning are also noted by Lumby:

> For some, helping each learner to fulfil his/her individual potential is key. In other societies, helping learners to become productive members of society with less stress on individuality (Satow and Wang, 1994) or obtaining high examina-

> tion marks to gain a job with the highest possible salary (Chan and Watkins, 1994) is the aim. (Lumby, 2001:4)

The effects of cultural difference on the contexts in which effective learning may take place are illustrated by research in secondary schools in the Shaanxi province of China by Bush et al. (1998). Here, class sizes of up to 75 pupils were observed – although 50 was more typical – where: 'whole class teaching predominates, using the traditional modes of learning, recitation and review'. However, the researchers concluded that in the Chinese schools 'large classes and formal approaches do not appear to be inimical to high standards' (ibid.: 189)

Dimmock (2000: 125–6) comments that: 'Chinese students are highly motivated to do well at school, as this is seen to be the route to social and economic advancement as well as improvement in the person', and Bush et al. (1998) report that the Shaanxi teachers had a larger proportion of non-contact time than their UK counterparts. This time was spent in preparing lessons, marking work, giving extra support to children and working together in the 'jaioyanzu' – curriculum groups – to make decisions about curriculum and instruction and to observe and comment on each other's work. Viewed from this perspective, the schools observed might be judged as 'learning-centred', even though the emphasis was not on the individual learner.

Cultures change, however, and learning preferences may change with them. Chan and Watkins report from a study of student preferences in Hong Kong secondary schools that:

> Clearly many of the students would prefer their science classroom to be a friendlier place where both students and teachers enjoyed working together planning a variety of interesting but challenging activities. Such an environment would encourage both the deeper level and more achievement-oriented learning strategies that students would prefer. (Chan and Watkins, 1994: 245)

At present, there is little evidence that this change has taken place.

Evaluating learning will thus be individual to each culture, and probably to each institution. It will depend on the learning capacity of the staff of the college or school, and will be based upon the cultural norms of the system, the individual and collective needs of the learners, and the specific learning aims of the institution. It will be driven by an evaluation of both the current learning environment and the success and satisfaction of the students, and, given the changing nature of societies and education systems today, will often involve challenging the 'status quo'.

Monitoring the management of learning

> Colleges must lead and support staff in their new roles as managers of learning, at a time when morale may be low and sub-cultures may be in conflict with the

> emerging corporate culture. Raising staff awareness, overcoming cynicism, dealing with role-change problems, involving part-time staff more, and gaining the acceptance of non-teaching staff are on every college's agenda. (FEU, 1993: 58)

The above quotation, written at a time when English further education colleges were going through a painful process of change, reminds us that even such a fundamental task as managing the curriculum – sustaining a role as a manager of learning – is not straightforward, and will be influenced by external and internal political factors.

How well the curriculum is managed – and therefore how well the learning process is progressing – may, according to West-Burnham (1994) be judged by one of a number of processes, which include: assessment, assurance, inspection, evaluation and monitoring.

1 '*Assessment is a summative process, providing measurements against objective criteria*' (ibid.: 158). In its simplest terms, where curriculum management is concerned, the teacher, the institution, or the local or national government may set targets as to what percentage of students of a certain age will pass a test at a specified grade. The success of the teacher, the department or the school will be judged by whether this is achieved or not. More complex systems of institutional self-assessment exist, where an annual review of the whole college or school is carried out, using measurements against a number of performance indicators. This may in turn be combined with the next process: inspection.
2 '*Inspection is an external, summative process, judging the extent to which an organisation meets externally imposed criteria*' (ibid.: 158). As well as considering student achievements – as in the simple example above – the process of teaching and learning will usually be observed and judged against the inspectors' criteria, as well as the systems of management operating in the college or school. If a system of self-assessment is in operation, the inspection report may also judge how well the institution has assessed itself.
3 '*Assurance is a process designed to remove the need for external, summative inspection by designing a process to guarantee conformity*' (ibid.: 158). This process is more often applied to college and school systems of administration than to the management of learning. However, the government-prescribed format for the teaching of literacy and numeracy in UK schools could be described as an attempt at assurance: the aspiration is that if the format is adhered to, attainment levels will rise. In this case, as in many examples of quality assurance, the process of external inspection is still retained.
4 '*Evaluation is an internal or external formative process designed to give feedback on the total impact or value of a project or activity*' (ibid.: 158). It will usually be combined with monitoring: 'the collection of data and evi-

dence to inform other review activities' (ibid.: 158) The key word in the definition is 'formative'. An evaluation system is set up in order to enable those involved in managing the work of a department, a developmental project or a teaching activity to understand how well it is progressing, so that adjustments and changes to process or even to aims and overall direction can be made. As such it is a system which can facilitate the 'double-loop learning' referred to in this chapter on p. 173.

A cycle for monitoring and evaluating aspects of curriculum management in a college or school can be represented as in Figure 11.1. One striking feature of this cycle is the distance between 'identify need' and 'carry out activity'. If the curriculum activity is to be properly monitored and evaluated, then its design and purpose must be clear, and all involved must know both what its targets and outcomes are, and how they are to be measured, within what time frame. The 'necessary resources' may include time and staffing for the monitoring activities to take place, access to administrative support for data analysis, and time for staff to meet and evaluate the activity. If double-loop learning is to take place, then the evaluation process will not only assess the activity against the original targets and outcomes, but also consider whether policies and practice now need to be changed and new objectives set.

Representations of this type can give the discouraging impression of a treadmill where a predetermined cycle is endlessly repeated. What the diagram cannot easily show is the progress made. The circle is not static: it is like a wheel moving along a road, often moving forward at some speed as those involved

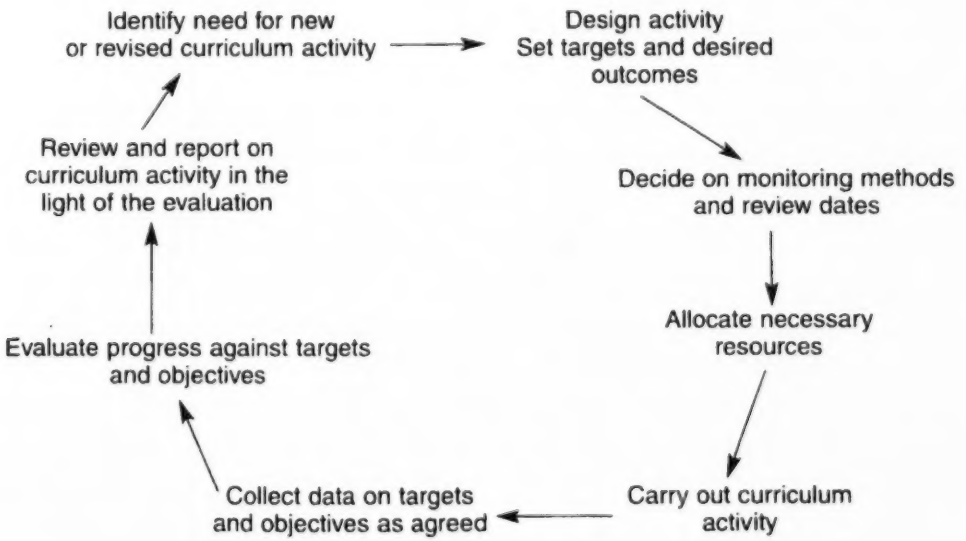
Identify need for new or revised curriculum activity
Design activity Set targets and desired outcomes
Decide on monitoring methods and review dates
Allocate necessary resources
Carry out curriculum activity
Collect data on targets and objectives as agreed
Evaluate progress against targets and objectives
Review and report on curriculum activity in the light of the evaluation

Figure 11.1 Curriculum monitoring and evaluation cycle

learn more about the process in which they are involved, and if it is not moving forward at all, or is moving in directions which are not appropriate, then the whole process needs to be re-examined.

The cycle can be used to evaluate innovations, both in curriculum content – for example, where a new course is to be piloted and evaluated – and in curriculum delivery: evaluating new staffing patterns or teaching and learning methods for an existing course. Where innovations are concerned, it is important to have comparative data to use as benchmarks in order to evaluate success.

The cycle can also be used to support routine planning for a curriculum area, subject or class. Given the existing workload of teachers and managers, monitoring in the form of data collection and analysis will usually be kept simple, using statistical data which are readily available, or the visible achievement of specified outcomes. This does not prevent the monitoring activity from being rigorous and objective. As Hardie (2001: 72) comments: 'Monitoring . . . is finding out what is really happening, not what managers might think is happening or what managers would like to be happening.' Hardie (2001: 70–1) comments that monitoring uses a planned, routine gathering of information, and seeks to answer the question: 'Do we do what we say we do?'

Monitoring student progress

In 1997, Yair reported on a piece of large-scale research which had been carried out in the primary school sector in Jerusalem. The results of over 19,000 children in school grades 2–6 throughout the city for standardised tests in reading and mathematics were analysed for gender, socio-economic status and level of parental education. Unsurprisingly, results were lower for children with low socio-economic status and for those whose parents had low educational achievements; girls were found, on average, to have better reading scores than boys, whilst the reverse was true in mathematics. However, when these known factors were taken into account, there was still a statistically significant difference between the results from different schools. What was more startling, and was treated to extensive statistical analysis by the researchers to ensure the elimination of confounding factors, was the extent of the variation in results of individual classes within schools. In other words – to quote the title of the research paper: 'classrooms matter'. In the case of a primary school system where single teachers teach most of the school curriculum to their particular class: class teachers matter.

This research confirms objectively what most teachers and managers subjectively know: that some classrooms are more successfully managed than others, and that more learning takes place in them. It is not the remit of this chapter to investigate the reasons and remedies for this. The focus of this chapter is on evaluating learning, and it is important that curriculum managers

find ways of evaluating what learning is taking place, and under what circumstances, in the classrooms for which they are accountable.

Their evaluation will probably involve the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data may be in the form of test scores, or the statistical analysis of student or parental satisfaction surveys; the collection of qualitative data may involve systematic observation of teaching, or consultation with students. In these investigations, evaluation can be attempted of some of the more intangible aspects of learning. For example, Mortimore et al. (1988) report in their Junior School study ways in which children's self-image, behaviour and attitudes towards school activities can be measured; MacBeath et al. (1992) have developed 'ethos indicators' for schools in the Scottish system.

Observation of teachers and lecturers at work – evaluation of the learning process at work within the college or school – has traditionally been a key feature of external inspection. Observation as a system of internal monitoring has in some countries encountered operational and professional difficulties. Sometimes there is simply not the opportunity in the college or school day for either line managers or peers to observe and evaluate the work of colleagues in the classroom; sometimes there is a reluctance to judge: to 'get myself into a situation where I appear to be judging the work of a colleague whom I know to be my superior as a superb teacher of her subject', a reticence to intrude: 'sometimes there is a real sense that we are intruding into the realm of another professional' (subject leaders, quoted in Glover et al., 1998: 284).

However, where these difficulties can be overcome, systematic, planned observation of lessons can take its place alongside other monitoring methods. McGilchrist et al. (1997) report on the monitoring methods in place at one London secondary school. The written work of pupils of high, average and low ability is regularly sampled and examined for evidence of pupil achievement, of appropriate work being set and helpfully assessed, and whether the pupils' various needs are being met. The sampled pupils are observed in class, they and their parents are interviewed and positive feedback is given to the pupils and family. Areas of concern for the school are discussed as appropriate with the school managers and class tutors.

The most common focus of monitoring is that of examining data on student progress and achievement. Most institutions where students take public examinations will consider their results year on year as part of their internal evaluation process, and many are publicly judged – or in the case of English further education colleges, funded – according to the examination success of their students. Even when such seemingly unambiguous quantitative data are used for evaluation purposes, adjustments will have to be made if meaningful action is to follow. For example, it may be necessary to take into account the concept of 'value added' – acknowledging that even the youngest student arrives with some learning already accomplished. 'Without a "value added"

dimension, the obvious basis for judgment is that "higher" scores represent better practice and "lower" scores worse. This could lead to unwarranted complacency on the part of some schools . . . and, conversely, to despair on the part of others' (Dearing, 1993: 77).

Taking baseline testing on entry, or national examinations taken just prior to entry as a benchmark, the institution calculates how much progress has been made by individual students and by aggregated student groups. The calculation can be further refined by including an element which takes account of the degree of social deprivation of the student. This should not preclude the setting of challenging targets and high expectations for all students, as: 'schools can make a difference and that being in an effective as against a less effective school is a crucial determinant of life chances for many individual young people' (MacBeath and Mortimore, 2001: 2).

But should social deprivation simply be identified as a contributory factor to the student's present level of attainment, or as a factor which must be addressed in order to promote future success? In post-Pinochet Chile, this question has led to a rethinking of the principle of equity:

> Until now, the application of the principle of equality of opportunities has insisted that all children receive a similar education; in future one must look for a differentiated education in order to achieve similar results. This implies flexibility in order to spend more resources on the schools and programmes which are attended by the poorest children, young people and adults in the countryside and the city. (Garcia-Huidobro, 1990: 165, quoted in translation in Aedo-Richmond and Richmond, 1999: 198)

Equity and effectiveness at an institutional level can be addressed by systems of monitoring such as those below. They were written in the UK by the DFE/Ofsted (1995) for schools, but could equally apply to other educational institutions, and other countries.

1 How is our school currently performing?
2 Are some parts of the school more effective than others?
3 Are some groups of pupils doing better than others?
4 How does the school's performance compare with its previous achievement?
5 How does the school's performance compare with that of other schools?

Where issues of equity are concerned, answers to questions 2 and 3 will be crucial. Stoll and Fink offer useful comment here which can be applied to all phases of education:

> Equity is a fundamental tenet of school effectiveness. Some schools are differentially effective: they offer better opportunities to one pupil group than another, for example girls rather than boys, younger rather than older pupils,

> pupils of one ethnic or social class background, pupils taking particular subjects or courses, or pupils in different levels or streams. During evaluation, data should be disaggregated to examine differences between such groups. (Stoll and Fink, 1996: 169)

Once it is found, for example, that engineering trainees have had better examination success in recent years than hairdressing trainees, that students on short, part-time courses have tended to drop out before the end, whereas those on longer, full-time courses have not, that the traditionally strong mathematics department has actually had declining success in national tests and examinations over the past five years, that over the past three years pupils working with teacher A have done better than those working with teacher B, that children from a particular ethnic group perform better than children from another, then the college or school is in a position to address the situation.

These examples include the practice of evaluating relative achievement over time – question 4 in the list above. Comparison with other institutions of similar type can also be useful, as indicated in question 5. Data can be obtained, either through partnership with the other institution(s), through examination of data in the public domain, or by providing information for, and 'buying into' the use of, databases of college and school statistics collated by commercial companies.

Examination of monitored data in answer to questions 2–5 can enable managers and staff to answer question 1: 'How is our school [or college] currently performing?' Following the precepts of the learning organisation, if all staff have been involved in collecting and analysing the data, they may be more ready to understand and address issues which are of concern, and to make proposals which will start the process of change.

Conclusions: evaluate what you value

> Why have non-educators determined a narrow range of outcomes on which schools are to be judged? It is too easy to point out that 'they' are misguided or perverse. If there is a problem for educators and researchers, we did it to ourselves. We have never demonstrated to ourselves, let alone anyone else, that schools make a difference to pupils' learning, knowledge, skills and attitudes which will enable them to be successful citizens in the twenty-first century. If most educators are not assessment literate how can we expect our publics to understand the issues that relate to assessment? (Stoll and Fink, 1996: 167)

In the course of this chapter, it has been argued that colleges and schools can evaluate:

- the learning needs of individual students, which can inform individual tutorial practice and class teaching styles

- the differential effectiveness of departments, tutors, gender groups and ethnic groups
- the progress and future direction of a curriculum department, curriculum project or a class group
- whole-institution effectiveness – e.g. by examination results adjusted for value added and social factors
- the developmental needs of staff, including their capacity to work in synthesis to promote the learning goals of the organisation.

The focus of the evaluation will depend upon the values and aspirations of the institution, and the process will be undertaken with a sense of purpose. The evaluation may identify issues which need to be addressed, and the monitoring process can pinpoint where remedial or developmental action can take place; there will also be successes to celebrate. Over a period of time performance – and success – will be judged both externally and internally, formally and informally, in formative ways which enable future direction to be determined, and in summative ways which may place a 'snapshot' judgment, fixed in time.

In considering the subject of evaluation, Gray (1990) points to what he calls the 'missing dimension'. He considers that this refers to 'moments of quality', significant learning experiences where the learner makes a leap in understanding. These may not easily be evaluated, but Gray asserts that 'schools and teachers must be encouraged to identify and celebrate their moments of excellence' (ibid.: 30). In this way, the intangible essence of learning may be captured and made memorable.

The value of learning lies in the memories and life experiences of the learners.

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